Identification of "Missing Link" Families of Small DNA Tumor Viruses

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Abstract

Adenoviruses, papillomaviruses, parvoviruses and polyomaviruses are collectively known as small DNA tumor viruses. Although it has long been recognized that small DNA tumor virus oncoproteins and capsid proteins show a variety of structural and functional similarities, it is unclear whether these similarities reflect descent from a common ancestor, convergent evolution, horizontal gene transfer among virus lineages, or repeated acquisition of genes from host cells. We report the discovery of a dozen new members of an emerging fourth family of small DNA tumor viruses, the *Adomaviridae*. Cell culture-based expression of adomavirus open reading frames showed that the virion structural proteins of adomaviruses are homologous to those of adenoviruses. The search for adomaviruses unexpectedly revealed the existence of a previously unrecognized family of animal DNA viruses that are distantly similar to virophages and other polinton-like viruses of unicellular eukaryotes. Members of the emerging "adintovirus" family encode retrovirus-like integrase proteins and adenovirus-like DNA polymerase and virion structural proteins. Adintovirus sequences were found in genomics datasets for all major groups of animals, including terrestrial vertebrates. Analysis of the gene content of adintoviruses supports a model in which small DNA tumor viruses descended from more complex adintovirus-like ancestors through gene-loss and horizontal gene transfer events occurring hundreds of millions of years ago.

Author Summary

In contrast to cellular organisms, viruses do not encode any universally conserved genes. Even within a given family of viruses, the primary amino acid sequences of homologous genes can rapidly diverge to the point of unrecognizability. Although modern metagenomic surveys have begun to expose the wide sequence diversity within known virus families, it is unclear how much of the unidentifiable sequence "dark matter" typically observed in these surveys represents unknown virus groups. Our searches of sequence databases revealed more than a dozen highly divergent new members of an emerging virus family, the *Adomaviridae*. Using structure-guided methods for detection of distant homologs, we also discovered the existence of an apparently older lineage of viruses that we name "adintoviruses." Adintovirus sequences can be found as integrated into host animal germline DNA and as apparently linear DNA molecules in genome sequencing datasets for all major animal phyla. The results suggest a framework that ties small DNA tumor viruses into a shared evolutionary history in which key family-level divergence events occurred in early animals and their unicellular precursors.

Introduction

Polyomaviruses, papillomaviruses, parvoviruses, and adenoviruses are collectively referred to as small DNA tumor viruses. The four virus families encode non-enveloped virion proteins with similar β-jellyroll core folds and express functionally similar oncogenes that inactivate cellular tumor suppressor proteins (Figure 1)[1,2]. It has remained unclear how small DNA tumor viruses might be interrelated. A current evolutionary model has placed adenoviruses on a spectrum of double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) polinton-like viruses that encode hallmark type B DNA polymerase (PolB) and integrase genes. Polyomaviruses, papillomaviruses, and parvoviruses are proposed to have descended from unrelated circular Rep-encoding single-stranded DNA (CRESS) virus ancestors [3]. While this model accurately represents many of the features of modern small DNA tumor viruses, it does not explain a number of observed similarities between the four families. Achieving a better understanding of the evolutionary origins of small DNA tumor viruses has the potential to direct comparative studies of these ubiquitous human pathogens.

Figure 1: Examples of small DNA tumor virus genomes. Genes are color-coded based on known or inferred functions. AEP: domain resembling archaeal-eukaryotic primase small catalytic subunit; white lollipop: retinoblastoma (Rb) interaction motif; gray lollipop: domain with predicted fold similar to DNAJ chaperone proteins; PLA2: domain with predicted fold similar to phospholipase A2; Tailspike: domain with predicted structural similarity to dsDNA virus tailspike proteins or carbohydrate degrading enzymes. See main text for explanation of other gene names. Supplemental Table 1 lists accession numbers and host animal taxonomic designations.

In 2011, a novel circular dsDNA virus was discovered in a lethal disease outbreak among Japanese eels (*Anguilla japonica*)[4,5]. Two related viruses have since been isolated from Taiwanese marbled eels (*Anguilla marmorata*) and giant guitarfish (*Rhynchobatus djiddensis*)[6,7]. The name "adomaviruses" has been applied to this emerging family based on the fact that they encode proteins with distant similarity to the virion-maturational proteases of *ad*enoviruses as well as proteins distantly similar to the replicative superfamily 3 DNA helicases (S3H) of poly*oma*viruses, papill*oma*viruses, and parvoviruses [8].

The starting goal of the present study was to identify the adomavirus major and minor capsid proteins. To discover additional adomaviruses, particularly those that might serve as laboratory models for adomavirus infection, we performed metagenomic sequencing and developed a bioinformatics pipeline to detect candidate adomavirus sequences in the NCBI's Sequence Read Archive (SRA). In addition to identifying more than a dozen adomaviruses, the searches serendipitously revealed the existence of a previously unrecognized virus family that encodes

82   distinctive PolB and virion proteins that are distantly similar to those of adenoviruses and
83   parvoviruses. Members of the previously unrecognized family also encode a retrovirus-like
84   integrase gene related to the integrase genes of a group of unicellular eukaryote-associated
85   polinton-like viruses known as virophages [9]. Analysis of the gene content of the emerging
86   "adintovirus" family sheds light on the evolutionary history of small DNA tumor viruses.

Results

Identification of adomavirus virion proteins

In a gene-naming convention developed for Japanese eel adomavirus (NC_015123), hypothetical
proteins are numbered using inferred late-strand open reading frame (LO) and early-strand open
reading frame (EO) designations. HHPred searches revealed that adomavirus LO8 proteins
resemble the virion maturational proteases of adenoviruses. This suggests the hypothesis that
adomavirus LO4-7 genes might be syntenic homologs of adenovirus virion structural proteins.
We set out to experimentally test this hypothesis.

To determine whether predicted adomavirus LO proteins are expressed from spliced or unspliced
ORFs, RNAseq data published by Wen and colleagues [6] were analyzed to determine the splicing
patterns of marbled eel adomavirus transcripts. Splice acceptors immediately upstream of the
inferred ATG initiator codons of LO4, LO5, LO6, and LO7 proteins were extensively utilized
(Supplemental Table 2). Messenger RNAs encoding the adenovirus late genes carry a tripartite
leader (TPL) that has been shown to enhance translation [10]. A similar three-exon leader sequence
was detected upstream of the marbled eel adomavirus LO genes (Figure 1).

HHpred searches were performed to detect predicted structural similarities between adomavirus
and adenovirus proteins. LO6 ORFs show high-probability (>95%) predicted structural similarity
to a 37 amino acid hydrophobic segment of adenovirus pX, a minor virion core protein that is
thought to participate in condensation of the viral chromatin [11]. LO6 alignments also showed
moderate probability hits for adenovirus pVI, which is believed to play a role in destabilizing
cellular membranes during the infectious entry process [12]. The results suggest that LO6 is a fused
homolog of adenovirus pVI and pX virion core proteins.

Adomavirus LO4 proteins have a predicted C-terminal trimeric coiled-coil domain. This
relatively generic predicted fold gives a large and diverse range of hits in HHpred searches,
including the coiled-coil domains of various viral fiber proteins (for example, avian reovirus
σC). Negative-stain EM findings indicate that adomavirus virions do not have a discernible
vertex fiber [4,6,7]. Some individual LO4 proteins, as well as alignments of LO4 proteins, yielded
HHpred hits for adenovirus pIX, a trimeric coiled coil protein that serves as a "cement" that
smooths the triangular facets of the adenovirus virion. The hypothesis that LO4 is a pIX homolog
could explain the smooth appearance of adomavirus facets in negative-stain EM.

Although LO5 and LO7 did not yield informative results in BLAST, HHpred, or Phyre[2]
searches, the inferred homology of the adomavirus LO4, LO6, and LO8 genes to minor
components of adenovirus virions led us to hypothesize that LO5 is a syntenic homolog of
adenovirus penton (a pentameric single-jellyroll protein that occupies virion vertices) and that
LO7 is a syntenic homolog of adenovirus hexon (a tandem double-jellyroll protein that
trimerizes to form virion facets) [1,11]. To experimentally test this prediction, marbled eel

adomavirus was grown in eel kidney cell culture [6] and virions were purified using Optiprep
gradient ultracentrifugation. Virion-rich gradient fractions were separated on SDS-PAGE gels
and bands were subjected to mass spectrometric analysis (Supplemental Figure 1). The results
indicate the presence of substantial amounts of actin and myosin derived from host eel cells.
Adomavirus LO2-3 proteins show high probability HHpred hits for Wiscott-Aldrich syndrome
protein and other actin-regulatory proteins, suggesting the hypothesis that the virion preparations
might be contaminated with host cell actin due to interactions with LO2-3. Only a small number
of individual peptides representing LO2-3 were detected by mass spectrometry. The analysis
identified prominent bands in the Coomassie-stained gel as LO4, LO5, LO7, and LO8. The
relative intensities of bands identified as LO5 and LO7 are consistent with the prediction that the
two proteins constitute penton and hexon subunits, respectively. Lower molecular weight bands
showed hits for LO6, consistent with the prediction that this protein is present in virions in an
LO8-cleaved form. Marbled eel and guitarfish adomavirus LO6 proteins encode potential
adenain cleavage motifs ((MIL)XGXG or L(LR)GG) [13]. A list of protein modifications observed
in the mass spectrometric analysis is shown in Supplemental Table 3.

Adenovirus penton proteins can spontaneously assemble into 12-pentamer subviral particles that
may serve as decoy pseudocapsids in vivo [14]. To investigate the possibility of a comparable
phenomenon in adomaviruses, codon-modified marbled eel adomavirus LO1-LO8 expression
plasmids were transfected individually into mammalian 293TT cells [15]. Optiprep
ultracentrifugation was used to separate virus-like particles from smaller solutes. A human
papillomavirus type 16 (HPV16) L1/L2 expression plasmid was used as a positive control for
virus-like particle (VLP) formation [16]. Cells transfected with adomavirus LO4, LO5, or LO7
expression constructs each showed robust production of particles that migrated into the core
fractions of Optiprep gradients (Figure 2), whereas cells transfected with LO1, LO2-3, LO6, or
LO8 alone did not show evidence of particle formation (Supplemental Figure 2). In co-
transfections of various combinations of LO genes, it was found that inclusion of LO6 inhibited
the formation of LO5 and LO7 particles but did not impair the formation of LO4 particles
(Supplemental Figure 3). This result suggests that LO6 is a minor virion component that directly
interacts with LO5 and LO7.

Figure 2. Negative stain EM of particles formed after expression of single LO proteins in mammalian cells. Mammalian 293TT cells were transfected with expression plasmids encoding the indicated marbled eel adomavirus proteins. Particles were extracted from cells by detergent lysis and purified by Optiprep ultracentrifugation. Scale bars are shown at the bottom left corner of each electron micrograph.

Individually expressed LO5 and LO7 particle preparations showed dsDNA signal in Quant-iT
PicoGreen assays (Invitrogen), indicating the presence of nuclease-resistant encapsidated DNA
within the purified particles. Optiprep-purified particle preparations from cells co-transfected
with LO4, LO5, and LO7 were subjected to an additional round of nuclease digestion with salt-
tolerant Benzonase endonuclease (Sigma) followed by agarose gel filtration to remove the
nuclease and any residual digested DNA fragments. The gel filtered particles reproducibly
contained roughly seven nanograms of DNA per microgram of total protein, confirming the
presence of nuclease-resistant nonspecific cellular DNA within the particles.

Taken together, these results support the hypothesis that LO4, LO5, LO6, LO7, and LO8 are
syntenic homologs of adenovirus pIX, penton, pVI:pX, hexon, and adenain, respectively.
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Detection of additional adomaviruses

In an effort to discover adomaviruses that infect animals amenable to laboratory study, we
performed sequencing of aquarium fish specimens and pursued data mining of public sequence
repositories. Post-mortem metagenomics analysis of an aquarium-bred Amazon red discus
cichlid (*Symphysodon discus*) exhibiting lethargy and inflamed skin lesions revealed a circular
~20 kb adomavirus genome (Figure 3). Histopathological analysis of skin lesions from the discus
specimen showed no evidence of intranuclear inclusions or other obvious histopathology.

Another adomavirus from an apparently healthy green arowana (*Scleropages formosus*) was first
identified as a set of short NCBI Whole-Genome Shotgun (WGS) contigs with similarity to
Japanese eel adomavirus. A complete adomavirus genome was characterized by Sanger
sequencing of overlapping PCR products using DNA left over from the original fin snip used for
the WGS project [17].

A bioinformatics pipeline was developed to probe the SRA. Datasets that appeared to be rich in
adomavirus-like sequences based on translated nucleotides were subjected to de novo assembly.
This approach resulted in the identification of 10 complete or nearly complete adomavirus
genomes representing distinct species (Supplemental Table 1, Figure 3). Notably, two
adomaviruses were identified from genome sequencing datasets for farmed tilapia (*Oreochromis*
niloticus), which represent a $9 billion per year global aquaculture industry. Adomavirus-like
fragments were also detected in a brook salamander (*Calotriton asper*) and two closely related
species of anole lizard (genus *Anolis*). Our pipeline did not have adequate throughput to
comprehensively search the much larger volume of SRA data for mammals and birds.

Figure 3: Picture maps of previously unknown adomaviruses. The figure uses the same color scheme as Figure 1. Alpha adomaviruses are defined by the presence of an adoma-specific superfamily 3 helicase (S3H) gene, designated EO1. Beta adomaviruses instead encode a polyomavirus large T antigen (LT). In many cases, repetitive or GC-rich patches (particularly near the 3' end of the LO2-3 ORF) could not be resolved using available short-read datasets. Coverage gaps are represented as white bars. A poorly conserved set of accessory genes upstream of beta adomavirus EO1 genes show varying degrees of similarity to the S-adenosyl methionine-binding pocket of cellular SET proteins, which function as histone lysine methyltransferases. Adomavirus SET homologs are highly divergent from all previously described eukaryotic and viral SET genes. The same is true for adomavirus EO2-4 and EO3 segments that encode homologs of the catalytic small subunit of archaeal eukaryotic primases (AEPs). Supplemental Table 1 lists virus accession numbers and Linnaean designations of host animals.

Adomavirus sequences can be divided into two groups based on their replicative S3H genes. A group we designate Alpha is defined by the presence of an EO1 replicase gene distantly similar to papillomavirus E1 proteins (Figure 4). Sequence and predicted structural similarities include a C-terminal S3H domain and a central HUH nicking endonuclease-like segment referred to as the origin binding domain [3,18,19] Kazlauskas, 2019 #117}. Members of adomavirus clade Beta encode proteins highly similar to the large T antigen (LT) proteins of fish-tropic polyomaviruses. The adomavirus LT-like proteins share a full range of familiar polyomavirus-like features, including an N-terminal DnaJ domain, a potential retinoblastoma-interaction motif (LXCXE or LXXLFD) [20], a nickase-like origin-binding domain, and a C-terminal S3H domain [21].

Figure 4: High stringency (E-10) sequence similarity network analysis of S3H proteins from indicated virus groups. An interactive Cytoscape file that incorporates virus names, accession numbers, and sequences is posted at https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/AdintoNetwork

It is thought that polyomaviruses and papillomaviruses tend to co-evolve with their animal hosts
[22,23]. This is reflected in the fact that phylogeny within polyomavirus and papillomavirus genera
recapitulates the phylogenetic relationships of host animals. Although adomavirus phylogenetic
trees are currently sparse, the available data are consistent with adomavirus-host co-evolution
similar to that of polyomaviruses and papillomaviruses (Supplemental Figure 4). For example,
the phylogeny of adomavirus LO8 (adenain) proteins roughly correlates with the animal classes
in which the sequences were found. In particular, Alpha adomavirus sequences observed in RNA
datasets for brook salamander and anole lizards are more closely related to one another than to
fish-associated adomaviruses. The results suggest that Alpha adomaviruses and Beta
adomaviruses have been evolving as independent lineages for at least half a billion years
(Supplemental Figure 4).

Discovery of adintoviruses

Database searches for adomaviruses revealed a large number of contigs uniting an adenain
homolog, polintovirus-like penton- and hexon-like genes, and a retrovirus-like integrase (Figure
5, Supplemental Figure 5). We refer to this group of contigs as "adintoviruses." A hallmark
adintovirus feature is a large protein with a characteristic N-terminal RNA-binding zinc finger-
like domain, a central papain/OTU1-like domain, an endonuclease VII-like domain, and a C-
terminal type B DNA polymerase (PolB) domain. A sequence similarity network analysis of

adintovirus PolB genes reveals two distinct clades (Figure 6). The predicted PolB proteins of a
lineage we designate Alpha show similarity to adenovirus PolB genes, while Beta adintovirus
PolB genes are distantly similar to bacteriophage PolB sequences. The appearance of two distinct
clades is recapitulated in network analyses of predicted adintovirus hexon and penton proteins,
suggesting the existence of two independent lineages.

Figure 5: Picture maps of select adintovirus genomes. The figure uses the same color scheme as
Figure 1. Supplemental Figure 5 shows additional examples of adintovirus genomes. Supplemental
Table 1 lists accession numbers and host animal taxonomic designations.

Figure 6: Moderate stringency (E-5) network analysis of PolB proteins. An interactive Cytoscape file that incorporates virus names, accession numbers, and sequences is posted at https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/AdintoNetwork

Apparently complete adintovirus genomes were found in high-throughput sequencing datasets for a wide variety of animal types (Supplemental Table 1 and https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/AdintoAll). In many cases, the consensus of mapped reads ended abruptly, suggesting a linear, non-integrated viral genome. In some instances, such as a barley midge (*Mayetiola destructor*) dataset, a complete linear adintovirus genome could be assembled, but the dataset also contained a range of lower-coverage variant sequences, some of which were flanked by inverted terminal repeats (ITRs) contiguous with insect genomic DNA sequences. This observation suggests that the adintovirus integrase gene is functional and mediates integration events akin to those observed in virophages [9]. A subset of apparently integrated adintoviruses, including contigs assembled from various crocodile datasets, are heavily interspersed with frameshift and nonsense mutations (Figure 5). In many cases, adintovirus-like sequences appear to be adjacent to or infiltrated by endogenous retroelements. The results indicate that adintovirus sequences can exist as free viral minichromosomes, as integrated proviruses, or as endogenized degraded relics in animal germline DNA.

Many Alpha adintoviruses encode proteins similar to the phospholipase A2 (PLA2) domain of parvovirus VP1 virion proteins. The adintovirus PLA2 homologs typically include a C-terminal domain with predicted structural similarity to adenovirus pX. Adintovirus "PLA2X" proteins also show predicted structural similarity to melittin and secreted PLA2 proteins found in bee and snake venom. The fact that venom melittin and PLA2 act in concert [24] raises the speculative

hypothesis that some animal venom proteins might share common ancestry with membrane-
active viral capsid proteins.

Some adintoviruses encode homologs of the C-terminal regulatory domain of gasdermins, a
group of pore-forming proteins that serve as executioners in pyroptosis (a form of inflammatory
programmed cell death) [25]. Adintovirus homologs of a spider venom protein known as cupiennin
were also observed. Other predicted protein sequences were conserved among various
adintoviruses but did not show clear hits in BLAST or HHpred searches. We assigned these
groups of adinto-conserved unknown proteins numbered "Adintoc" names.

All classes of small DNA tumor viruses encode proteins harboring motifs, such as LXCXE, that
that are known to engage cellular retinoblastoma (Rb) and related tumor suppressor proteins [2].
Adenovirus E1A, papillomavirus E7, polyomavirus LT, and parvovirus NS3 oncoproteins
typically encode the Rb-binding motif just upstream of a consensus casein kinase 2 acceptor
motif ((ST)XX(DE)). Some oncogenes, such as E1A, encode an additional conserved motif,
referred to as CR1, that resembles Rb pAB groove-interacting motifs
((DEN)(LIMV)XX(LM)(FY)) [20,26]. In general, these predicted Rb-interacting motifs are adjacent
to potential zinc- or iron-sulfur-binding motifs (typically, paired CXXC). Open reading frames
encoding combinations of these motifs are frequently observed in adintovirus contigs
(Supplemental Figure 5). We refer to these predicted proteins as "oncoids" due to their
similarities to the known oncogenes of small DNA tumor viruses. Predicted adintovirus
homologs of anti-apoptotic proteins, such as Bcl2 and IAP, were also observed. Surprisingly,
oncoid-like genes were also observed in virophage-like pointoviruses of unicellular organisms
(Supplemental Figure 6). These observations raise the hypothesis that the oncogenes of modern
small DNA tumor viruses descended from accessory genes that first arose in viruses of early
eukaryotes.

Adintoviruses were detected in diverse chordate datasets ranging from lancelets (*Branchiostoma*
belcheri) to box turtles (*Terrapene mexicana triunguis*). A seemingly complete adintovirus
genome was found in a transcriptomic dataset for a Mexican blind tetra cavefish (*Astyanax*
mexicanus). Adintovirus transcripts were most abundant in cavefish head, kidney, and intestine
samples and least abundant in muscle and whole embryo samples (Supplemental Table 4). In
contrast to the lancelet and box turtle datasets, which showed a high degree of intra-host
adintovirus sequence diversity at varying abundance, the cavefish adintovirus sequences were
relatively uniform. The observation is consistent with possible bottlenecking of a single
adintovirus strain into the sampled population of aquarium fish. Cavefish could provide a
tractable small vertebrate model for adintovirus infection.

The only obvious examples of adintoviruses in mammal datasets were found in a PacBio-based
WGS survey of bovine lung tissue. Sequences outside the ITRs were highly diverse but in a few
instances showed BLASTN similarity to genomic DNA sequences of various beetles, including
Tribolium castaneum (a flour beetle that commonly infests cattle feed). Similarly, two integrated
adintoviruses found in a genomic dataset for olive trees (*Olea europaea*) showed insect-like
sequences outside the ITRs (Supplemental Figure 5). Adintovirus sequences found in some
datasets thus appear to represent environmental contaminants, as opposed to infection of the
organism that was the subject of the sequencing effort.

Identification of "missing link" parvoviruses

Sequence queries in GenBank nr, WGS, and TSA databases revealed a large and highly diverse
range of parvovirus NS1-like genes in all major animal phyla. With the exception of parvovirus-
like contigs found in datasets for *Abeoforma whisleri* and *Ichthyophonus hoferi* (unicellular
eukaryotes that are closely related to animals), parvovirus-like sequences were not convincingly
detected in datasets for non-animal eukaryotes. Interestingly, the *Abeoforma* contig encodes a
protein with similarity (HHPred probability 82%) to the reverse transcriptase domain of group II
intron maturases (Figure 7).

BLAST searches using Alpha adintovirus PolB sequences consistently returned high-likelihood
matches to the PolB genes of an emerging group of bipartite parvoviruses referred to as
bidnaviruses [27]. SRA searches for additional examples of bidna-class PolB genes revealed
bidnaparvovirus-like contigs in datasets for false wolf spider (*Tengella perfuga*) and Tasmanian
devil (*Sarcophilus harrisii*) feces. The detected PolB genes exhibit predicted structural similarity
OTU1 (a hallmark feature of adintovirus PolB genes).

The bidnparvovirus-like genes observed in the false wolf spider and Tasmanian devil feces
datasets each occupied a single contig. In previously reported bidnaparvoviruses, the ITRs of
each of the two genome segments are identical. We therefore probed the spider and devil datasets
for examples of additional contigs with termini similar to the ITRs of the initially observed
contigs. The datasets were also searched for contigs encoding proteins similar to previously
reported bidnaparvovirus proteins. Second segments were not detected, suggesting that the
viruses are monopartite. We suggest the name "monodnaparvovirus" for this class of sequences.

Figure 7. Parvovirus genome maps. Figure uses the same color scheme as Figure 1. GIIM indicates similarity to group II intron maturases. Accession numbers are listed in Supplemental Table 1.

Analysis of S3H genes

Polyomavirus LT, papillomavirus E1, and adomavirus EO1 replicase proteins have an origin-
binding domain that shows clear structural similarity to the HUH "nickase" endonuclease
domain of parvovirus NS1 proteins [3,8,18]. The replicase genes of CRESS viruses share the same
HUH-S3H domain architecture. Many CRESS viruses encode an ORF "overprinted" in the +1
frame of the Rep ORF and similar overprinted ORFs have been observed in parvovirus NS1,
polyomavirus LT, and papillomavirus E1 genes [28,29].

We did not detect examples of adintovirus-specific S3H genes. Although many virophage-class
polintoviruses encode proteins with S3H domains [30], our searches confirm that the S3H proteins
of virophage-like viruses lack detectable HUH endonuclease-like domains and lack overprinted
ORFs. Furthermore, virophage-class S3H proteins did not cluster with small DNA tumor virus
S3H proteins in sequence similarity network analyses. These observations support the standard
view that CRESS, polyoma, papilloma, and parvovirus replicase genes share more recent
common ancestry with one another than with the S3H genes of other known virus lineages [3,8].

Discussion

Discussion

In this report, we began by identifying the hexon and penton genes of the emerging adomavirus
family. We demonstrated that the adomavirus LO4-8 array is homologous to the adenovirus late
gene array that encodes most of the virion structural proteins. The ability of adomavirus virion
proteins to assemble into irregular "virus-like" particles should facilitate the development of
recombinant vaccines against adomaviruses.

We identified two distinct lineages of adomaviruses that appear to have been independently co-
evolving with their vertebrate hosts for at least half a billion years (Supplemental Figure 4).
Within both of these adomavirus lineages, there are members associated with commercially
important fish species. Surprisingly, three closely related Alpha adomavirus-like segments were
observed in RNA sequencing datasets for terrestrial vertebrates. It will be important to apply
emerging higher-throughput search algorithms, such as Mash Screen [31], to exhaustively search
for adomaviruses in deep sequencing datasets for other terrestrial vertebrates, including humans.

Our searches for adomaviruses serendipitously revealed an apparently older lineage of animal-
tropic viruses that we name adintoviruses. Adintoviruses encode a number of genes that appear
to be homologs of membrane-active proteins found in animal venom. These include bee and
snake venom PLA2 and melittin, as well as a spider venom protein called cupiennin. In some
cases, these proteins also score as weakly similar to bacterial colicin proteins or bacteriophage
holin proteins, which play a role in disrupting bacterial membranes during the infectious entry
process. We speculate that some types of animal venom genes may be endogenized membrane-
active virion protein genes. It also appears that adintoviruses share relatively recent common
ancestry with some segments of bracoviruses (Supplemental Figure 5), a group of endogenized
virus-like elements that parasitoid wasps inject alongside their eggs [32].

Adomaviruses and adintoviruses have a number of features that could make them useful as
recombinant gene transfer vectors. Their genome size is substantially larger than commonly used
parvoviral, lentiviral, and papillomaviral vectors but, in contrast to adenoviruses, their genomes
are small enough to be manipulated in the setting of standard plasmids. An intriguing feature of
the adintovirus integrase gene is the presence of a predicted chromodomain that, in LTR
retrotransposons, is believed to influence integration site specificity [33]. Adintoviruses could
theoretically provide a useful alternative to retroviral vectors.

It has generally been assumed that the functionally similar oncogenes found in adenoviruses,
papillomaviruses, parvoviruses, and polyomaviruses arose through convergent evolution or
through horizontal gene transfer between virus families [2]. Although small DNA tumor virus

oncogenes show extremely low overall sequence similarity, they can be roughly defined based
on the presence of short linear motifs. Many adintoviruses encode candidate "oncoid" proteins
with these motifs. Unexpectedly, it appears that some virophage-class polintoviruses of
unicellular organisms also encode oncogene-like proteins (Supplemental Figure 6). These
observations raise the hypothesis that the cell growth-regulating oncogenes of modern small
DNA tumor viruses might have descended from a class of viral accessory genes that evolved
before the appearance of multicellular animals.

Although the current study indicates clear homologies between adenovirus, adomavirus, and
adintovirus virion proteins, the origins of polyomavirus and papillomavirus virion proteins
remain unclear. It has previously been suggested that the major capsid proteins the smaller tumor
virus families might have arisen from the capsid proteins of CRESS and/or ssRNA viruses [3,8].
This would have involved a complex shift from the simple T=1 icosahedral geometry of CRESS
virions, in which the strands of the core ß-jellyroll of the major capsid protein are parallel to the
lumen of the virion, to the more complex T=7 perpendicular jellyroll organization seen in
papillomaviruses and polyomaviruses [1]. The process would also have involved a transition from
encapsidation of a naked ssDNA viral genome to encapsidation of a chromatinized dsDNA
genome. Since CRESS viruses are not known to encode minor capsid proteins, descent of
papillomaviruses and papillomaviruses would also have involved the acquisition of the hallmark
L2 and VP2 minor capsid proteins from unknown sources. CRESS viruses typically have
genomes less than 3 kb in size, while papillomaviruses and polyomaviruses are typically 5-8 kb
in size. Although a few CRESS viruses with 5-9 kb genomes have recently been reported, the
larger CRESS virus genomes each encode multiple parallel-jellyroll capsid protein paralogs or
unrelated non-jellyroll filamentous virion proteins [34]. There thus does not appear to be a clear
precedent for papillomavirus/polyomavirus-like virion architecture among known CRESS
viruses. We propose a simpler model in which the pentameric papillomavirus and polyomavirus
major capsid proteins were derived from the perpendicular single-jellyroll penton proteins of
adintovirus-like ancestors and the minor capsid proteins were derived from a penton-associated
minor virion protein. The observation that the penton protein of marbled eel adomavirus
associates can assemble into roughly spherical ~50 nm structures carrying non-specifically
encapsidated dsDNA raises the possibility that minimal evolutionary adaptations would be
required to construct a structure capable of housing a polyomavirus or papillomavirus genome.
This hypothesis could also be extended to the splayed-jellyroll capsomers of parvoviruses. One
line of support for this idea is the observation that parvovirus virion proteins typically include an
N-terminal domain closely resembling adintovirus PLA2X proteins. Similarly, a small subset of
parvoviruses appear to encode capsid protein domains with distant similarity to predicted
adenovirus tailspike-like proteins [35,36], which some adintoviruses appear to encode.

To further explore the hypothesis that papillomavirus, polyomavirus, and parvovirus virion
proteins were derived from adintovirus-like ancestors, extremely low stringency network
analyses were performed for various classes of major and minor capsid proteins. The analysis
rests on the assumption that a small subset of members of each virus family might have better
preserved the primary sequence of a common ancestor, which would be revealed by BLAST-
detectable linkages between a few members of different clusters. Aside from the previously
described distant similarity between the parvovirus PLA2 domain and the Cap genes of small
subset of non-animal CRESS viruses [37,38], no clear connections were observed between groups of
small DNA tumor viruses and CRESS virus capsid proteins. The low-stringency analysis does,

however, suggest possible similarities between papillomavirus, polyomavirus, and parvovirus
major capsid proteins and the penton proteins of adenoviruses, adomaviruses, and adintoviruses
(Supplemental Figure 7). Possible distant similarity was also observed for some combinations of
minor capsid proteins (Supplemental Figure 8).

A framework that could account for the apparent similarities between extant small DNA tumor
viruses is presented in Figure 8. A testable prediction of this model is that adomavirus LO6 and
adintovirus PLA2X, cupiennin, and gasdermin proteins will, like the papillomavirus and
polyomavirus minor capsid proteins, be found to directly interact with the luminal surface of
penton proteins in the assembled virion. We also predict that the fold of polyomavirus VP2 and
papillomavirus L2 proteins may be found to resemble inferred minor capsid proteins of
adintoviruses. The model further predicts that adenovirus pX, in addition to its proposed role in
condensing adenovirus genomes [11], participates in destabilization of host cell membranes during
the infectious entry process in a manner similar to that of papillomavirus L2 proteins [39,40].
Another prediction is that the penton proteins of adintoviruses can, like marbled eel adomavirus
penton protein, form spherical 50 nm structures that contain nuclease-resistant DNA.

Figure 8: A model for gene flow during small DNA tumor virus evolution. Dotted lines are hypothetical.

At the outset of this study, adintoviruses were not recognizable as viruses. For example,
comprehensive searches for adventitious viruses in the commonly used *Spodoptera frugiperda*
cell line SF9 have misclassified adintoviruses as transposons [41,42]. An important implication is
that there may be additional unrecognized families of animal viruses hiding in plain sight in
sequence databases. To address this problem, it will be important to develop higher throughput
methods for more sensitive structure-guided searches and for understanding which combinations
predicted homologs co-occupy single contigs. It will be especially important to apply high
throughput annotation pipelines, such as Cenote-Taker [34], that generate human-readable
GenBank compliant maps. Deposition of these annotated new viral genomes in publicly
accessible databases will be critical for expanding our understanding of the animal virome.

Materials and Methods

Sample Collection and cell culture

A red discus cichlid (*Symphysodon discus*) was purchased at a pet shop in Gainesville, Florida. The fish was moribund and showed erythematous skin lesions. Propagation of the discus adomavirus in cell culture was attempted by overlaying skin tissue homogenates on Grunt Fin (GF) and Epithelioma Papulosum Cyprini cell lines (ATCC). Neither cytopathic effects nor qPCR-based detection of viral replication were observed during two blind passages of 14 days each.

Dr. Chiu-Ming Wen generously provided EK-1 cells (a Japanese eel kidney line) infected with the Taiwanese marbled eel adomavirus [6]. The virus was propagated by inoculation of supernatants from the infected culture into uninfected EK-1 cells cultured at room temperature in DMEM with 10 % fetal calf serum. Human embryonic kidney-derived 293TT cells were cultured as previously described [15].

Viral genome sequencing

For the discus adomavirus, total DNA was extracted from a skin lesion and subjected to deep sequencing. Marbled eel adomavirus virions were purified from lysates of infected EK-1 cells using Optiprep gradient ultracentrifugation [43]. DNA extracted from Optiprep gradient fractions was subjected to rolling circle amplification (RCA, TempliPhi, GE Health Sciences). The marbled eel adomavirus RCA products and discus total DNA were prepared with a Nextera XT DNA Sample Prep kit and sequenced using the MiSeq (Illumina) sequencing system with 2 × 250 bp paired-end sequencing reagents. In addition, the marbled eel adomavirus RCA product was digested with *AclI* and *EcoRI* restriction enzymes and the resulting early and late halves of the viral genome were cloned separately into the *AclI* and *EcoRI* restriction sites of pAsylum+. The sequence of the cloned genome was verified by a combination of MiSeq and Sanger sequencing. The clones will be made available upon request.

For the arowana adomavirus, overlapping PCR primers were designed based on WGS accession numbers LGSE01029406, LGSE01031009, LGSE01028643, LGSE01028176, and LGSE01030049 [17]. PCR products were subjected to primer walking Sanger sequencing.

Marbled eel adomavirus transcript analysis, late ORF expression, and virion purification

RNAseq reads reported by Wen et al [6] were aligned to the marbled eel adomavirus genome using HISAT2 version 2.0.5 [44] with the following options: "--rna-strandness FR --dta --no-mixed --no-discordant". Integrated Genome Viewer (IGV) version 2.4.9 [45] was used to determine splice junctions and their depth of coverage. Additional validation was performed by visual inspection using CLC Genomics Workbench 12.

Codon-modified expression constructs encoding the marbled eel adomavirus LO1-LO8 proteins were designed according to a modified version of a previously reported algorithm (https://github.com/BUCK-LCO-NCI/Codmod_as_different_as_possible)[46]. 293TT cells were transfected with LO expression constructs for roughly 48 hours. Cells were lysed in a small volume of PBS with 0.5% Triton X-100 or Brij-58 and Benzonase Dnase/Rnase (Sigma)[47]. After

one hour of maturation at neutral pH, the lysate was clarified at 5000 x g for 10 min. The
clarified lysate was loaded onto a 15-27-33-39-46% Optiprep gradient in PBS with 0.8 M NaCl.
Gradient fractions were collected by bottom puncture of the tube and screened by PicoGreen
dsDNA stain (Invitrogen), BCA, or SDS-PAGE analysis. Electron microscopic analysis was
performed by spotting several microliters of Optiprep fraction material (or, in some instances,
particles exchanged out of Optiprep using agarose gel filtration) onto carbon support film on
Cu/Ni/Au grids, followed by staining with 0.5% uranyl acetate.
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Discovery of viral sequences in NCBI databases

Compilations of sequences use in this study are posted at the following link:
https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/Adinto. Papillomavirus E1 sequences were
downloaded from PaVE https://pave.niaid.nih.gov [48]. Polyomavirus LT sequences were
downloaded from PyVE https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/Polyomavirus [23].
Parvovirus NS1 proteins and S3H proteins of virophage-like viruses were compiled from
multiple databases, including RefSeq, WGS, and TSA, using TBLASTN searches. Adenovirus,
virophage, and bacteriophage PolB sequences were downloaded from GenBank nr using
DELTA-BLAST searches [49] with alpha or beta adintovirus PolB proteins as bait.

SRA datasets for fish, amphibians, and reptiles were searched using DIAMOND [50] or NCBI
SRA Toolkit (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK158900/) in TBLASTN mode using
adomavirus protein sequences as the subject database or query, respectively. Reads with
similarity to the baits were collected and subjected to BLASTX searches against a custom library
of viral proteins representing adomaviruses and other small DNA tumor viruses. SRA datasets of
interest were subjected to de novo assembly using the SPAdes suite [51,52] or Megahit [53,54]. Contigs
encoding virus-like proteins were identified by TBLASTN searches against adomavirus protein
sequences using Bowtie [55]. The candidate contigs were validated using the CLC Genomics
Workbench 12 align to reference function.

Adintoviruses were extracted from WGS and TSA datasets using TBLASTN searches with S3H
genes of various small DNA tumor viruses or the PolB, adenain, or PLA2 genes of Nephila orb-
weaver spider alpha adintovirus GFKT014647032. Predicted protein sequences were
automatically extracted from contigs of interest using getorf (http://bioinfo.nhri.org.tw/cgi-
bin/emboss/getorf) [56]. Proteins were clustered using EFI-EST (https://efi.igb.illinois.edu/efi-
est/)[57,58] and displayed using Cytoscape v3.7.1 [59]. Multiple sequence alignments were
constructed using MAFFT (https://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/#/tools/mafft). Individual or aligned
protein sequences were subjected to HHpred searches
(https://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/#/tools/hhpred) [60] of PDB, Pfam-A, NCBI Conserved Domains,
and PRK databases.

Contigs were annotated using Cenote-Taker [34] with an iteratively refined library of conserved
adintovirus protein sequences. Maps were drawn using MacVector 17 software.

The phylogenetic analysis shown in Supplemental Figure 4 was performed using Phylogeny.fr [61].
Host animal divergence times were obtained from TimeTree of Life http://www.timetree.org [62].

Mass Spectrometry

Optiprep-purified marbled eel adomavirus virions were precipitated with trichloroacetic acid. A 1 ml sample was treated with 100 µl of 0.15% deoxycholic acid and incubated at room temperature for 10 minutes. 100 µl of 100% TCA was then added and the sample was vortexed and incubated on ice for 30 minutes. Following the incubation, the sample was centrifuged at 10,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was removed, and the remaining pellet was washed with ice-cold acetone to remove residual TCA. The protein pellet was solublized with NuPAGE Sample Buffer + 5% BME (Sigma) and run on a 10-12% Bis-Tris MOPS gel (Thermo). The protein bands were visualized using InstantBlue (Expedeon). Thirteen gel bands were individually excised and placed into 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes. The gel bands were sent to the National Cancer Institute in Fredrick, Maryland where they were de-stained, digested with trypsin, and processed on a Thermo Fisher Q Exactive HF Mass Spectrometer. Thermo Proteome Discoverer 2.2 software was used for initial protein identification. The uninterpreted mass spectral data were also searched against *Anguilla* proteins (Swiss-Prot and TrEMBL database containing 105,268 proteins), Bos taurus proteins (Swiss-Prot and TrEMBL database containing 48,288 proteins), a common contaminants database (cRAPome), and translated marbled eel adomavirus ORFs. Further analysis was conducted using Protein Metrics Biopharma software to identify modifications missed in initial analyses.

Ethics Statement

All animal tissue samples were received as diagnostic specimens collected for pathogen testing and disease investigation purposes.

Data Availability

GenBank accession numbers for sequences deposited in association with this study are MF946549, MF946550, MH282863, and BK010888-BK010894. NCBI BankIt submissions 2250743-2256014 (see Supplemental Table 1) are presently awaiting assignment of accession numbers. Compilations of all sequences used in this study are posted at
https://ccrod.cancer.gov/confluence/display/LCOTF/Adinto

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